

A SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION TO THE
INTERPERSONAL MEANING OF SEXUAL EXPERIENCE

By

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Dedicated to Gail Garrison for her love and support,
and to Gene Vittetoe for her love and guidance.

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This study examined the effects of gender and sex-role on the meaning of sexual experience. While the literature suggests many needs and purposes of sexual behavior and attitudes, underlying meaning has been explored very little in empirical research. A review of theory and research is discussed. Several hypotheses were examined. Gender, sex-role orientation (from the Bem Sex-Role Inventory), and the gender and sex-role interactions were examined on the Meaning of Sexual Experience (MOSE III) questionnaire, which evaluates subjects on the following subscales: Affiliation, Inadequate/Undesirable, Achievement, Morality, and Erotic/Dominance.

An analysis (MANOVA) of the data found that few gender differences emerged, and the differences that did emerge were inconsistent with previous results on the MOSE III. Male-female differences occurred on the Inadequate-Undesirable and Moral subscales, with men rating themselves

greater on both factors (endorsing more negative and morally oriented adjectives). Sex-role (masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated groups) differences emerged on four of the five subscales (excluding Inadequate/Undesirable). Feminine and androgynous subjects rated themselves significantly greater on the Affiliation and Moral subscales, while masculine and androgynous subjects' self ratings were significantly greater on the Erotic/Dominance subscale. On the Achievement subscale, the undifferentiated group was significantly lower than all other groups. The interactions of gender and sex-role were not significant. The author concluded that sex-role orientation indicated more meaningful differences in sexuality scores than gender alone. Results are discussed in relation to current theory and research regarding sex-role and sexuality.

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

- A. "When I'm in love, nothing expresses the feelings of closeness and tenderness better than making love."
- B. "Sex does nothing for me--I just don't enjoy it anymore."
- C. "Sex is good if it is done right."
- D. "Sexual intercourse is something I don't engage in, maybe it's from my upbringing or religion, but I think it's best left for marriage."
- E. "What's wrong with sex for enjoyment and play? I believe sex is exciting and pleasurable and that is enough for me."

Some current perceptions of the meaning of sexuality were reflected in the quotes above. These various perceptions have been explained by Bernstein (1982), and the following components respectively define the above statements: A) the need for intimacy; B) an undesirable or inadequate component; C) the need for accomplishment in terms of "doing a good job"; D) a "right or wrong" moral stance; and E) an erotic element. These components then, represent some psychological issues which come together on the common ground of sexuality for individuals today in our society.

The concept of "meaning" is an individual one, that which we ascribe to events, acts, relationships, or intentions (Russell, 1940). Leon Levy (1963) stated that "events do not carry with them their own interpretations. They are innocent of any meaning except insofar as we impose it upon them" (p. 8). Yet research and theory lead us to examine some common patterns of sexual meaning prevalent in our current culture.

In evaluating the role of meaning, Creelman's (1966) definition provides usable structure. The meaning of a stimulus can be

- (1) defined by the responses to it (the stimulus)
- (2) understood in associative connections between stimulus and response
- (3) conceptualized as a mediating process resulting in responses that serve as a stimulus for other overt responses
- (4) a complex response system which may include visceral, sensory, and cognitive elements.

To these statements Creelman adds that we need to know the role of emotions to meaning. The above statements are the domain in which research is attempting to define the psychological, or interpersonal meaning of sexual experience.

Fulfillment of personal needs expressed through sexuality has been a topic of folk, philosophical, and scientific theory throughout history. LoPiccolo and Heiman (1977) write that a number of themes have predominated through the ages to the present, "first it was seen as sinful, then as physically dangerous, next as a symptom of psychological immaturity, and finally as a required ability" (p. 182). In western society these

themes correspond to the time periods characterized first by the Judeo-Christian tradition, then the Victorian era, next the development of Freud's themes, and finally by the work of "sexologists" including Kinsey and Masters and Johnson.

Psychology as a science has studied attitudes, fantasies, physiological responses, and behavior as related to sex, yet the underlying meaning of sexual experience (the fulfillment of interpersonal psychological needs through sexuality) has been researched very little. However, understanding the meaning of sexual experience may shed light on understanding the seeming diversity of sexual behaviors, fantasies, and attitudes, especially as related to counseling individuals and couples about sexual issues and difficulties. Examination of meaning of sexuality may also shed light on the consequent personality styles developed to fulfill such needs.

The current research can further support the theory and research regarding meaning of sexual experience. Continued development of theory, reflecting accurate assumptions, depends on the resulting research being conducted and planned. While the meaning of sexuality is but one element in terms of perceptions of life in general, sexuality has become a more important and publicly discussed issue in recent years.

Research, which ultimately refines theory, can be developed based on use of the Meaning of Sexual Experience (MOSE III) questionnaire (Bernstein, 1982). This current study is an attempt to further understand and clarify variables which determine interpersonal meanings in sexuality. Examination of differences with other experimental populations such as sexually inexperienced versus experienced subjects and

deviant versus normal populations may also further clarify theory through future research. Additional developments may result in personality profiles and interpretations of the interactions of the five MOSE III dimensions. Development of experimental designs may also determine effects of treatment on change in personal meaning for individuals. Ultimately, this research may foster further study of the meaning of experience in other areas such as work, family, or education, where underlying meanings may have important effects on overt behaviors.

Practical use of sexuality meanings is valuable in that counselors may more quickly assess possible problem areas with clients. This would be particularly advantageous with couples seeking psychotherapy for sexual problems. For example, a couple composed of a traditionally masculine male and a traditionally feminine female (according to current societal values) may present themselves for counseling because each member has a differing view of the role of sex in the relationship. One member might be preoccupied with "doing sex well" while the other may be concerned with the intimate, affiliative elements of the experience. Discovering different meanings of sex for each partner may reveal the "why" of sexual dissatisfaction between the two.

Advantages of the MOSE III data may also be evidenced in training and education of counselors involved in sex therapy. The MOSE III questionnaire could provide additional structure for assessments of sexual issues, supported by a straightforward conceptual framework.

Purpose of the Study

Much of research in meaning of sexuality examines male-female differences and has provided clouded results. Therefore, it is felt that examination of subjects along sex-role lines may further clarify differences in the meaning of sexuality. The purpose of this study is to determine the relationships between sex-role of subjects and their views of sexual experience, that is, if the MOSE III questionnaire indicates differences in the meanings of sexuality among subjects based on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) categories: Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous, and Undifferentiated (Bem, 1977).

Use of the MOSE III and the BSRI, as opposed to interviews, observational approaches, or other methods, is beneficial for several reasons. Both instruments consist of concise self-report rating scales comprised of lists of adjectives, which allow subjects to complete each in a relatively short amount of time. The convenience of the forms also allows for group administration, reducing experimenter time while gathering data on many subjects at once. The nature of the item is also composed of common words and phrases, not usually associated with sexuality, resulting in a relatively innocuous method of examining sexual meaning.

Both questionnaires allow for individual administration if necessary, and the lists do not need to be adapted in any way. Costs of the instruments are also low, due to the "paper and pencil" nature of each inventory. These factors support the practical use of the instruments, in terms of both experimenter and subject time and cost considerations.

Interpersonal meaning of Sexuality: Theory and Research

Related Literature

Both Bernstein (1982) and Bender (1980) examined philosophic, religious, and psychological themes of sexuality from a historical perspective. For background information in those areas, the reader is referred to those literature reviews. This review is concerned with the theory and research related specifically to the interpersonal meaning of sex, followed by an overview of related literature stemming from Bem's sex-role model.

Theory. No one theory presents a comprehensive conceptualization of sexuality in regard to the MOSE III questionnaire; therefore, this tool was developed from a variety of sources. Components of these theories conform to one or more of the MOSE III dimensions of Affiliation, Achievement, Inadequate/Undesirable, Morality, and Erotic/Dominance.

Early themes regarding the importance of interpersonal aspects of sexuality involved aggressive and intimacy oriented terms, while comparing men and women differentially. Ellis' (1942) view of sex included a need for dominance in men and submission and emotional depth (affiliation) for women. Simon (1974) noted those issues, adding components of competence (achievement) and eroticism as explanations of sexual meaning. Gagnon and Simon (1973) and Tavris and Offir (1977) discuss components of men's and women's purposes in sexual behavior, which included males' need for aggression, conquest, and achievement, with females' tendency toward romance (affiliation) and attractiveness.

Others support the notion that men and women view sex differently. Pleck (1976) claims that men stress achievement and suppress affect, while Gross (1978) adds that men are power, control, aggression, violence and goal oriented in meanings of sex. Women are often viewed as more affection (Reik, 1960) and relationship oriented (Morris, 1978).

Numerous meanings of sex are discussed by several authors. Wrightsman (1977) discusses sexual behavior from a social perspective in terms of sex fulfilling five general purposes. The functions of personal sexual meaning

- (1) help us to form impressions of others;
- (2) can lead to deep human emotions (guilt, shame, fulfillment, and self-confidence);
- (3) can be assaultive, pathological, or utilitarian;
- (4) are used to prove or demonstrate one's gender identification;
- (5) are used for recreation and reproduction.

Gagnon (1977) proposed the following purposes: reproduction, child raising, pleasure, love, variety, intimacy, rebellion, degradation, exploitation, relaxation, achievement, and service to others. Others still, support the idea of sex as play (Comfort, 1976; Foote, 1976), with recent developments in contraception facilitating "play" as an expression of behavior in terms of sexual needs.

Wilson, Strong, Robbins and Johns (1980) use a variety of terms which can also be categorized into the MOSE III dimensions, defining sexual intercourse as a vehicle for tenderness, acceptance, relief of loneliness and isolation (affiliative responses), or for rejection and

degradation (undesirable, negative responses). In addition, the authors reaffirm that sexual involvement may include conquest, aggressive, and power orientations (achievement and erotic/dominance) and relief of physical tensions (erotic).

The divergence of terms can be conceptualized by Mosher's (1980) view that sexual behavior is an interaction of many variables, including emotions, thoughts, sex-roles, and levels of desired involvement with a partner. These elements may all contribute to form "meaning" in regard to sex. Gagnon and Simon (1973) emphasize that interpersonal sexual meanings are integrated in our overall social values and behavior, where the meaning of sex determines an individual's sexual behavior. Gershman (1978) defines "healthy" sexuality as a part of mental health, occurring through development of feelings of affection and mutuality (affiliation) in addition to the ability to give and receive pleasure (achievement and erotic elements).

Eight dimensions define adolescent sexuality, according to Mitchell (1972): the need for intimacy; the need for belonging; the desire for dominance or control; the expression of submissiveness (which may increase intimacy); curiosity and competence needs; passion and intensity; identification with and imitation of role models; and rebellious and negative qualities. Mitchell's model for adolescents can be supplemented by a developmental model of sexual morality from Schoof-Tams, Schlaegel, and Walczak (1976), for children 11 to 16 years old. Cognitive development is hypothesized to proceed from a traditional, procreation oriented meaning of sex towards a permissive, love oriented sexuality.

Research. In spite of the folk, philosophical and psychological discussion of sexuality as interpersonally meaningful, few research studies actually devote attention to this area. This section summarizes existing research with a special focus on the studies which are direct precursors of this dissertation.

Kanin, Davidson, and Scheck (1970) examined sex differences as related to love, indicating that males tend to earlier experience being "in love" in relationships than females. Overall though, women more often expressed romantic experiences with love. Hesselund (1971) examined motivation for engaging in sexual intercourse, finding that relief of physiological tension and reproduction explanations accounted for only a small amount of the reasons given. Regarding sex differences, females responded more negatively in reporting first sexual experiences, while men more often felt first experiences had a great effect on their lives. Istvan and Griffitt (1980) discuss meaning of sex in dating, and Schildmeyer (1977) supports the preceding research in part, finding that positive sexual experience was discussed by subjects in terms of psychological aspects, as opposed to physical components.

In relation to negative meaning, Farley, Nelson, Knight and Garcia-Colberg (1977) factor analyzed data on college students, finding certain "pathological" orientations towards sexuality in males and females. These included a negative view, a homosexual view, and an experience and stimulation view. Women also exhibited a repressive, moralistic view.

Libby and Strauss (1980) examined meaning in relation to sex and violence, finding that men whose meaning of sex is warm and affectionate have low levels of violence, whereas when sexual meaning was exploitation and dominance oriented, there was a high positive correlation with violence. Results for women were inconclusive, due to the small number in the study.

Sexual dysfunction is discussed by Kaufman and Krupa (1973) in terms of six interpersonal dimensions. These include (1) early deprivation affectional needs; (2) incorporation of guilt from parental messages regarding sex, resulting in a rigidly moral view; (3) power oriented relationships developed from early parent-child interactions, resulting in a competitive rather than intimate orientation; (4) hostility and unexpressed anger; (5) expectations of a need to be competent, causing anxiety; and (6) a fear that adequacy and potency may lead to reprisals.

As previously mentioned by several authors, morality issues in sex are reported for women. Peplau, Rubin, and Hill (1977) found women reported moral issues more than men. Kutner (1971) also discusses morality in sexuality for women. Female sex guilt reduced sexual desire, arousal, responsiveness, and ability to achieve orgasm. Sigusch, Schmidt, Reinfeld, and Wildermann-Sutor (1970) examined women giving self-reports in response to erotic slides. When women were physiologically aroused, they were less likely to report the arousal than men, possibly supporting a moralistic view regarding sexuality.

Male sexuality has also been discussed in the literature. Finger (1975) examined attitudes and behavior of male college students over a 30 year period. In terms of premarital sex, divergent behavior at times indicated similar underlying meanings. Engagement in premarital sex was viewed as enhancing sexual skills and compatibility, in increasing the likelihood for successful marriage, while the same reason was given by the abstainers, because it increased respect and trust. Subjects in the early (1943) phase of the study mentioned religious and moral issues, while religious and moral issues were almost never mentioned in the later (1967) phase. This study lends support for the MOSE III dimensions of affiliation, competence (achievement) and morality. Pietropinto and Simenauer (1977) also examined male sexuality, finding that the majority of the sample felt sex was not the most important pleasure, refuting the notion of eroticism as the primary pleasure orientation of men. In addition, another 11.4% indicated sex was only a means of expressing love. Most men did report, however, that when satisfying women through intercourse, they felt "most manly." This supports a gender-role orientation to the sex act itself, especially in relation to achievement. Sixty percent of the men also reported that sexual unresponsiveness in women negatively affected them in terms of arousal, feelings of inadequacy, and satisfaction, which leads back to Schildmeyer's (1977) conclusion that subjects valued the psychological aspects of sex experiences more than the physical aspects, with the quality of the relationship being the most important.

Nelson (1978) developed the Sexual Functions Measure (SFM) to examine reasons subjects engaged in sexual relations, resulting in five factors: Pleasure stimulation; Conformity; Acceptance, Personal love and affection; Power and Recognition-competition. This instrument was later used by Bernstein to assess convergent validity on the MOSE III, correlating the Affiliation, Achievement, and Erotic/Dominance dimensions with the SFM.

Development of the MOSE III Questionnaire

The last four studies discussed here are direct precursors to the present research. They are concerned primarily with instrument development and analysis of subjects according to the five MOSE III dimensions.

Meaning-dimensions of sexuality were initially examined by Grater and Downing (currently under review) by having 302 subjects rate adjectives as to whether or not they described a personal meaning of sexual experience. A consensus of at least two of three judges was then used to categorize endorsed items into separate dimensions. A total of 84 adjectives were found useful in discriminating sexual experience into five categories labeled morality, affiliation, pleasure, achievement, and dominance. Results supported the hypotheses that males used more achievement oriented descriptors, while females used more affiliative oriented adjectives (a discussion of the sex role results of this study will be discussed under the BRI literature review. The authors cautioned, however, that more empirical evidence was needed to further establish that the adjectives actually represent the five meaning-categories. That task, then, served as the basis for Bernstein's (1982) research.

Evaluation and selection of adjectives (for the MOSE II) was developed from Grater and Downing's list, with conceptually appropriate words added by Bernstein (Appendix B). Final selection of adjectives resulting in the (current) MOSE III by Bernstein was based on evaluation of 326 subjects' ratings of personal sexual experience by factor analysis (oblique rotation) obtaining five factors which he labeled Affiliation, Achievement, Inadequate/Undesirable, Moral, and Erotic/Domainance. Items loading on each factor met statistical criteria (at least .40 correlation on the primary factor and .30 or less on all other factors) and are conceptually cohesive with the factor label. In addition, he found that the items did not present definitional problems for college students, based on a separate sample ($N=67$) of subjects who rated the words for understanding (from "don't understand" to "know what it means").

Group differences were also examined on the five factors. Males scored significantly ($p \leq .01$) higher than females on the Erotic/Domainance factor (and approached significance on the Achievement factor), while females scored significantly higher on the Affiliation dimension. On a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) for gender differences, however, Bernstein found no significant differences between groups. Group differences emerged when males and females rated "a typical member of the opposite sex." Both groups scored themselves higher on Affiliation and lower on Inadequate/Undesirable than the opposite sex scored them. Perceived differences in the opposite sex were greater than actual differences, based on self ratings. This indicates some misunderstanding of opposite sex views of sexuality by the subjects. Validity and reliability of the MOSE III will be discussed in the Method section.

To summarize thus far, the MOSE III questionnaire data analysis demonstrates the utility of conceptualizing the meaning of sexuality along five discrete dimensions: Affiliation, Inadequacy/Undesirability, Achievement, Morality, and Erotic Dominance. Bernstein also cautions that these categories may not represent all possible meaning-dimensions. In addition, male-female differences on the factor analysis found that men scored higher on the Erotic/Dominance factor, while women scored higher on the Affiliation dimension. Perceptions of opposite sex produced the most profound effects, indicating that both the Affiliation and Inadequate/Undesirable dimensions are being misperceived (in negative directions) by both men and women.

In the preceding study, male-female differences were not supported in the analysis of self-reports for three of the factors: Inadequate/Undesirable, Achievement, and Morality. One aim of the current research is to examine results of the MOSE III as based on sex-roles, which may also enhance differences for the Affiliation and Erotic/Dominance factors, contributing to the flexibility of the MOSE as an assessment tool. Therefore, the following section will discuss the BSRI theory and research in order to incorporate sex-role concepts with meanings of sexual experience.

Prior to a discussion of the BSRI, one additional study has been conducted using the MOSE III, and will be mentioned. Rodriguez (1982) compared male heterosexuals' and homosexuals' ratings, finding no significant differences between the two groups, even though the content of their sexual fantasies varied. Rodriguez concluded that sexual preference has no effect on meanings of sexuality for males. No comparison of results for males was possible between the Rodriguez and

Bernstein samples, because selection of subjects varied in the two studies; Rodriguez varied geographic location in data collection, and his sample size was much smaller (N=34) than in the Bernstein study.

Bem-Sex-Role Inventory: Theory and Research

Theory. A conceptualization of sex-role theory as related to sexuality is best explained by Steiner (1974) and Schwartz (1979). People develop personal views of sexuality based on sex-roles, discussed as "scripting." The more a person reports himself or herself as matching society's view of masculine or feminine, the more the individual's behavior aligns with the script of a particular sex-role. For example, a woman whose view of sexuality closely identifies with society's current view of what is feminine will engage only in behavior or respond with attitudes which are consistent with society's values. For her, behavior and attitudes are determined by her perception of what is acceptable for women in general. Both authors hypothesize that sexual fulfillment is possible to a greater extent, based on more flexible sex-roles. To illustrate, a woman whose scripting allows for behaviors traditionally labelled as feminine (e.g., expression of emotions such as vulnerability) and masculine (e.g., assertive behavior) will have a less restrictive view of herself which thereby allows her a larger repertoire of responses than the more traditional scripting of the "feminine" woman. Flexibility of sex-roles, then can be characterized by Bem's (1974, 1981a) concept of "androgyny."

Bem's (1974) Gender Schema Theory hypothesizes that a narrowly defined sex-role self-concept inhibits behaviors that are representative of the opposite sex. A self-concept that includes masculine and feminine characteristics (androgyny) allows for a larger diversity of behaviors. In addition, the individual who is considered androgynous is less likely to evaluate himself or herself from a masculine-feminine perspective than would the person who adopts more rigid standards of behavior, based on gender. This leads to a new view of sex-roles that had not previously been considered. Not only can individuals be masculine and feminine, but individual behavior typical of both sexes can be incorporated into a consistent self-concept. Sex-roles, then, are conceptualized not as a single (bipolar) dimension of masculine and feminine, but as two separate dimensions. Integration of both dimensions (androgyny) implies that a person can be "both compassionate and assertive, both expressive and instrumental, both masculine and feminine, depending upon situational appropriateness of these various modalities" (Bem, 1981b, p. 4). This concept is therefore explanatory of the variability of behaviors among the sexes which leads to inconsistent findings when analysis is based on the unidimensional concept of masculinity-femininity alone. Recently Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1975) and Bem (1977) further elaborated on these sex-role classifications, indicating that some individuals may be none of these three, representing an "undifferentiated" component. That is, the person may be a low scorer on both both masculine and feminine dimensions. Characteristics of this individual are vague, due to the fact that the person responds to situations in a random or "hit and miss" fashion in terms of sex-roles.

Gender schema theory is a cognitively based explanation of sex typing (Bem, 1981a, c); that is, development of sex-role is a cognitive process related to overall self-concept. The traditionally sex-typed individual selects behaviors and attributes based on the perceived social desirability of those characteristics. Individual characteristics are based on an idealized image of appropriateness for men and women. This schema is developed from reinforcement over time regarding the culture's definition of maleness or femaleness, becoming a standard or guide. This process is evidenced in the reinforcement of children in our society. Traditionally adults "would rarely notice or remark upon how strong a little girl is becoming or how nurturant a little boy is becoming, despite their readiness to note precisely these attributes in the 'appropriate' sex" (Bem, 1981a, p. 355).

Individuals become sex typed based on the functional importance of gender awareness. Society emphasizes male-female differences and socializes children from an early age based on these categories. Bem acknowledges that these categories have a primary biological function but argues that the dichotomy has resulted in an over-socialization to gender awareness. Individualization is sacrificed to appropriateness of gender characteristics beyond a necessary extent, evidenced in toys, clothing, jobs, and language. This argument is reflected in the feminist dialogue of our era. Androgyny can be viewed as a response to the rigidified importance of gender differences.

Bem cautions, however, that the search for conceptual guidelines and standards through androgyny itself is fatalistic. Society might replace the standards of being masculine or feminine by requiring individuals

to be both, resulting in doubling the expectations upon each of us. The ultimate political statement inherent in the theory therefore becomes a message of increasing acceptance of variety in sex-roles rather than changing the required categories themselves. The concept of androgyny is introduced to reduce the problematic typologies of maleness and femaleness. Judgements based on gender can be reduced to evaluation of the individual's characteristics as they are, rather than comparisons to preordained stereotypes.

Gender schema theory is therefore defined as a cognitive-developmental process, in which the individual incorporates sex-role ideals based on functional adaptation according to cultural standards (Bem, 1975). Sex-typed individuals regulate behavior through comparison with gender appropriate standards of the society, whereas non-sex-typed behavior is viewed as more functional, in that gender-appropriate behavior is of less importance. The individual utilizes strategies, attitudes, and behaviors which are the most relevant to situational concerns (Bem and Lenney, 1976). Gender schema theory discusses the developmental process of sex-typing as based on the social desirability of certain characteristics which are culturally assigned to each sex. The level of sex-typing is determined by the person's perception of what is desirable for his or her gender. Both socio-cultural and psychological variables therefore contribute to the sex-typing of individuals.

Evaluation of sex-role previous to development of the BSRI consisted of conceptualizing individuals in masculine or feminine terms (Gough, 1952; Constantinople, 1973) based on endorsement of items by

men or women. Bem (1974) rejected this notion in order to examine the possibility that some of us are androgynous (about 25% of her subjects were described as such). She believed that an instrument would more correctly distinguish sex-role differences based on characteristics that were acceptable and desirable for each gender in society. This led to the development of the BSRI consisting of two dimensions (masculine and feminine) based on subjects' ratings of socially desirable characteristics in our culture for men and women, as opposed to men and women rating themselves. Further studies have evaluated the utility of this experimental process and will be discussed in the following section.

Research. Currently the BSRI is a popular sex-role research instrument, with supportive studies validating the inventory having been conducted on a number of different populations and research topics in the western world (Blimline, 1976; Campbell, 1978; Carlson and Magnussen, 1980; Drinkwater, 1979; Hogan, 1979; Hughes, 1979; Prieto and McCoy, 1979; and Romero and Romero, 1978).

Bem (1974) selected items (adjectives and phrases) to be included based on two criteria: (1) that there was agreement between judges (100 in total, both male and female) on the social desirability of a characteristic for a man or for a woman; and (2) ratings by undergraduate psychology students which were significantly ($p \leq .05$) different when rating women than when rating men on each characteristic. No judges rated characteristics for both sexes. Items which were judged neutral for gender were selected as a "social desirability" orientation index for each respondent. The BSRI is composed of 20 masculine and 20

feminine characteristics with an additional 20 items originally included to assess social desirability (these items are now not assessed, since all items are measures of social desirability and are therefore considered redundant, according to Bem, 1981b). Subjects can then be classified as masculine, feminine, androgynous (high scores on both scales) and undifferentiated (low scores on both scales). Since development of the instrument, subjects have been asked to use the instrument as a self-report measure, rating the 60 items on a seven-point scale as to how true each item is for themselves. A short form which excludes the socially oriented items is also currently available.

Scoring and categorizing subjects is simply a matter of averaging item scores for each scale (masculine and feminine). A median split procedure (using Bem's original medians: Femininity=4.90; Masculinity=4.95; or using each study's sample norms) can then be calculated in order to separate subjects into one of the four categories. This method replaces the original scoring method, which will be discussed in the section covering criticisms of the BSRI. The current method has been recommended and supported by Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975), Strahan (1975), and Bem (1977); however, Bem (1981b) cautions that the median split method reduces comparisons of high and low scorers within each particular category. Since overall classification is the goal of the current study and individual comparisons are beyond the realm of this research, this issue is not of direct relevance here.

Reliability using Cronbach's alpha yielded .86 for the masculinity scale, .82 for the femininity scale, and .75 for the original social

desirability scale. For the original androgyny scores, alpha was .85. Internal consistency was also evaluated for gender on the masculinity, femininity, and androgyny scales, with alpha ranging from .75 to .90. Test-retest reliability (four week intervals) ranged from .89 to .93 (all results are taken from the BSRI manual, Bem, 1981b). Similar results were reported by Hogan (1977) and Rowland (1977).

A series of studies were conducted in order to assess validity of the BSRI (Bem, 1975; Bem, Martyna, and Watson, 1976; Bem and Lenney, 1976). The central principle regarding behavior is that sex-typed persons would exhibit more restricted behavior than androgynous individuals, which was evaluated under a variety of situations. Findings included: (1) androgynous persons (of both sexes) were more likely to engage in both independence (considered masculine) and nurturance (considered feminine) than sex-typed individuals. This was assessed in four studies. One examined conformity and independence in group pressure situation, while the other three examined nurturance responses with a kitten, a baby, and a lonely student. (2) Androgynous subjects were more likely to engage in cross-sex behaviors when the situation would produce higher personal benefits for engaging in gender inappropriate behaviors (money was the motivation stimulus). Sex-typed individuals resisted sex inappropriate behaviors even when it cost them money. Overall results indicate feminine men and women were low on independence and masculine men and women were low on nurturance. Males were generally less willing than women to engage in sex inappropriate activities. Ickes and Barnes (1978) examined interpersonal interactions, and found that less interaction occurred between stereotypically sex-typed male-female dyads than

when at least one member of the dyad was not stereotypically sex-typed. Several other authors have supported conceptual differences between androgynous and sex-typed individuals (Allgeier, 1975, Deaux and Major, 1977). These studies then, support the central hypothesis of Bem's theory.

Gender schema theory extrapolates that androgynous individuals, in addition to exhibiting a wider repertoire of behaviors, should also demonstrate higher self-esteem and mental adjustment. Current research does not fully support this conclusion. Bem (1977) found differential rates of self-esteem for men and women on a series of measures. High self-esteem was found in androgynous women, but self-esteem was related to men with high masculinity, regardless of their femininity scores (the undifferentiated group was consistently lower on self-esteem scores). Silvern and Ryan's (1979) results supported the results for women. Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson and Rosenkrantz (1970) had previously found masculine traits to be more personally valued than feminine traits. Jones, Chernovetz, and Hansson (1978), and Antill and Cunningham (1979) also found masculinity positively associated with self-esteem (as opposed to the hypothesized androgyny and self-esteem relationship). Androgyny was positively associated with self-esteem and acceptance of others in only one study (Eman and Morse, 1977). Androgynous men and women differ in self-evaluations based on a list of negative descriptors, according to Kelly, Caudill, Hathorn, and O'Brien (1977). Feminine women were also less likely to use negative masculine descriptors.

Androgyny as associated with positive self-esteem has therefore been challenged in the current literature. In summary, it appears that high levels of masculinity may be most important for males in regard to self-esteem, while the results for females are inconsistent. More research is needed in this area to reach firm conclusions for women.

Several other assumptions of the BSRI have also been criticized since its creation. Originally Bem's (1974) scoring and classification methods (using t-tests based on difference scores between masculine and feminine scales) came under attack by Strahan (1975) and Spence et al. (1975). The original method obscured differences between the androgynous and undifferentiated categories, including them both under one classification. In evaluating the alternative median-split method recommended by Spence et al., Bem (1977) recognized the importance of distinguishing between the androgynous and undifferentiated groups as two distinct classifications. The median-split method has therefore been adopted as a superior method for classifying subjects.

The BSRI has also been challenged as to differences in self-ratings versus general ratings of others. Bem (1974) initially developed the instrument from judges ratings of "desirable" characteristics for men and women in our society, but respondents now complete the form as self-ratings. Pedhazur and Tetenbaum (1979), McKee and Sherriffs (1959), Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman and Broverman (1968), Deutsch and Gilbert (1976) and Downing (1978) all discuss self-ratings as being qualitatively different from ratings of others. Results reflect views

that self-reports are less stereotyped than when rating others. In particular, Rosenkrantz et al. report that ratings of generalized gender categories are skewed in the direction of the most socially desirable characteristics. These concerns may be over-emphasized, in that Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1979) state "that while subjects' perceptions of typical members of each sex may exaggerate the number and magnitude of actual differences, their sex-role stereotypes may nonetheless have a substantial degree of correctness" (p. 37).

Criticisms of BSRI classifications in regard to men's and women's scores are currently an issue within the field. Kimlicka, Wakefield, and Friedman (1980) report from a factor analysis that some constructs are similar for males and females, but that there is some variation of constructs for males and females. A comparison of the BSRI and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire by Gross, Batalis, Small and Erdwins (1979) viewed the BSRI constructs as lacking in total "purity" but was the more promising of the two inventories in evaluating masculine and feminine identity.

Belcher (1981) discusses the importance of gender considerations when examining BSRI self-rating results, in that men and women may score similarly but underlying analysis may indicate different constructs are being employed by each sex. Pedhazur and Tetenbaum (1979) tentatively concluded that factor structures were different for men and women, although they were unable to draw firm results. Sassenrath and Younge (1979), however, found similar factor structures for the sexes on the BSRI, as did Waters, Waters, and Pincus (1977). Small, Erdwins and Gross (1979) found differential results for men and women on the BSRI and the

Heilbrun Masculinity and Femininity Scales. Correlations for the two tests were supported for men but not for women. Sassenrath and Young (1979) conclude: "our data and those of Bem (1975) showed that males scored reliably higher than females on the masculine scale and females scored reliably higher than males on the feminine scale. This finding appears to corroborate validity of the two scales" (p. 940-941). While these studies are conflicting, Belcher's suggestion that gender and sex-role typologies should be considered together seems warranted, particularly when used in conjunction with other assessment instruments. Therefore, use of the MOSE III will include analysis of both male-female and sex-role comparisons.

Researchers have also criticized sex-role theory in general, suggesting that interpretations be made in terms of behavioral components (e.g., self-sufficiency, independence, expressivity, nurturance, interpersonal sensitivity, etc.) instead of labels of masculinity/femininity (Belcher, 1981; Spence and Helmreich, 1981). This criticism receives additional indirect support from analysis of the androgyny scale (Liberman and Gaa, 1980; Rowland, 1980). These authors describe the androgyny category as more complex than merely exhibiting both masculine and feminine traits. This conclusion does not seem surprising however, in that gender schema theory has received supporting evidence that androgynous persons display a wider repertoire of behaviors, depending on situational concerns instead of sex-role guidelines. Complexity of traits for the androgynous person should therefore logically follow from the theory.

One study has examined meaning of sexuality in conjunction with the BSRI. Grater and Downing (under review) classified 302 subjects according to the masculine and feminine categories, and asked them to rate 476 adjectives for personal sexual meaning. Examination of endorsement of items was made for both male-female and masculine-feminine categories. Judges then classified the endorsed items into categories which were then labeled by the authors as affiliation, dominance, achievement, pleasure, morality, and an unclassified category. All adjectives were significantly endorsed at the .05 level or less. Differential endorsement by the sex-role groups occurred on 50 of the adjectives. Once again it must be mentioned that the authors cautioned that the adjectives needed further empirical validation in terms of conceptual cohesiveness (which resulted in development of the MOSE III questionnaire). While comparisons of gender and sex-role categories were not made, this study reflects the importance of evaluating meanings of sexuality with sex-role considerations.

In summary of this literature review, recent research examining interpersonal meaning is supportive of the following psychological dimensions fulfilled through sexuality, affiliation, achievement, morality, an undesirable component, and an erotic/dominance component. Research has demonstrated that some gender differences occur, but that examination of differences based on gender alone may misleadingly cloud meaningful results. Evaluation of sex-roles should further clarify and explain issues involved in sexuality. In addition, consideration of gender in conjunction with sex-role results should clarify some of the confusion which has been brought to light in recent BSRI research.

Statistical Hypotheses

- I. There will be no significant differences on the self-ratings between males and females on each of the five MOSE III factors (Affiliation, Achievement, Inadequate/Undesirable, Moral, and Erotic/Dominance).
- II. There will be no significant differences on the self-ratings between the Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous, and Undifferentiated subjects on each of the five MOSE III factors.
- III. There will be no significant differences on the self-ratings between the eight gender and sex-role categories (Male-Masculine, Male-Feminine, Male-Androgynous, Male-Undifferentiated, Female-Masculine, Female-Feminine, Female-Androgynous, and Female-Undifferentiated) on each of the five MOSE III factors.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

This study was designed to examine the relationships of gender and sex-role orientation on types on interpersonal meanings of sexuality, that is, whether the scores on the Meaning of Sexual Experience III (MOSE III) questionnaire are related to sex-role classifications as determined by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI).

Subjects

Subjects in this study were students in General (introductory) Psychology courses at the University of Florida. These students participated in partial completion of a course requirement in which each class member took part in five hours of human subject research. Thus, the present study fulfilled one-fifth of the course requirement.

Demographic information collected from subjects included gender, age, race, and sexual preference. A total of 269 subjects were used for the analysis, consisting of 117 females (43.5%) and 152 males (56.5%). The sample age range was from 16 to 24 years of age with the mean age being 19.14 years old. In terms of racial and ethnic categories, whites were represented in 89.59% of the sample, with blacks, hispanics, and other minorities accounting for 10.41%.

Sexual preference was also requested from the subjects, and responses from homosexuals were eliminated before the initial analyses were carried out, since it was felt that sex-role perceptions may be different in some cases for "gay" individuals.

The issue of inclusion based on sexual experience was also considered. The degree of experience can be viewed in terms of (a) the number of sexual experiences of each subject, and (b) the depth of the relationship(s). The number of experiences may be based on partners or variety of experiences. Persons may be considered sexually experienced even though there could be a large difference in number of partners or actual experiences. Persons with the same number of partners may be representative of different behaviors and "meaning" however (i.e., a series of one-to-one relationships may reflect different meaning than an "alternative sexual style" such as group sex or mate swapping). Depth of relationships may be represented by marital status, which is influenced by emotional commitment level, degree of marital satisfaction, length of time in the relationship, and lifestyle (i.e., married vs living together, having children vs childless).

This researcher included varying levels of sexual experience, since there are many ways of being "experienced." Theory supports the assumption that varying degrees of experience and behavior may be motivated by similar underlying needs and "meaning." Sexual attitudes have been considered a component of overall attitudes, values, beliefs, and behavior, based on consistency theory (Gagnon, 1977; Gagnon and Simon, 1973; Schwartz, 1979; Steiner, 1974). For example, the achievement-oriented person will evaluate sexuality in terms of accomplishment,

while the morality-oriented person will evaluate sexual behavior from an ethical view. No current research is available regarding the effects of experience levels on interpersonal meaning of sex. Evaluation of experienced vs inexperienced subjects utilizing the MOSE III is currently being conducted and may shed more light on this methodological issue.

In summary, subjects with varying levels of sexual experience have been included in the sample. This sample reflects a heterosexual, predominantly white, young, college-oriented population of middle class socioeconomic background.

Instruments

The Meaning of Sexual Experience Questionnaire (Form III) and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory were used in this study.

The MOSE III

This instrument lists a series of adjectives and asks the subject to rate his or her personal meanings on a seven-point scale from "not descriptive" to highly descriptive" (Appendix C). Completion of the adjective list resulted in ratings of the five MOSE III subscales:

- (1) Affiliation, which indicates a tender, caring viewpoint of sexuality;
- (2) Inadequate/Undesirable, indicates a negative view;
- (3) Achievement, reflects creative, competitive and competence issues;
- (4) Moral, includes an ethical stance toward sex; and
- (5) Erotic/Dominance, which is concerned with sexually oriented adjectives.

In addition to the MOSE III adjectives, an Information Sheet (Appendix D) was used to collect demographics including age, race, gender, and sexual preference of the respondents. This study was part of a group of projects in which data were collected simultaneously to further evaluate subjects on the MOSE III, and those additional data are currently being analyzed.

Bernstein (1982) reported that each of the five MOSE III factors was conceptually cohesive in that all adjectives met the criteria by loading on its primary factor with a .40 correlation and loaded .30 or less on all other factors. Reliability and validity were also demonstrated. Reliability measured by Cronbach's (1951) alpha for each factor exceeded criteria for split-half reliability of .70, with the exception of the Erotic/Dominance factor, which was .69. Validity was assessed in several ways. There were no significant definitional problems for the adjectives, based on college students ratings of the word list, and therefore, definitional problems do not interfere with validity. Content validity was supported in that three of the hypothesized dimensions (Affiliation, Morality, and Achievement) emerged in the factor analysis. The additional two factors which emerged provide evidence for their validity in the conceptual cohesiveness of the adjectives and each factor. Construct validity has been demonstrated through group differences on the MOSE III. At the $p = .01$ level, males scored significantly higher on the Erotic/Dominance dimension (also approaching significance for the Achievement dimension) while women were significantly higher on the Affiliation factor. Differences were also reported for each gender's view of the opposite sex. Hypothesized differences were supported in that subjects of each sex scored themselves higher on the Affiliation factor and lower on the Inadequate/Undesirable factor than they scored the opposite sex. Actual differences were not as large as differences perceived by each group of the opposite sex. Use of Nelson's (1978) Sexual Functions Measure (SFM) offered only weak

support for underlying convergent validity on the MOSE III, due to methodological differences in the construction and conceptualization of the factors for each of the instruments.

The BSRI

Use of the MOSE III with the BSRI is appropriate, since development of both instruments occurred through norming on psychology students from large universities. In addition, norms on the BSRI were calculated for the present sample, instead of classifying subjects according to Bem's (1978, reported in Bem, 1981b) original norming study (both sample norms will be reported in the Results section, however).

The original 60-item BSRI form was used for this research. Sex-role category inclusion was based on the following criteria (Bem, 1981b). Calculation of scores was computed by averaging items for both the masculine and feminine scales. Inclusion in the categories was based on a median split, so that subjects scoring above the median on the masculine scale alone were classified as "Masculine," subjects scoring above the median on the feminine scale were classified as "Feminine," subjects scoring above the median on both scales were classified "Androgynous," and subjects scoring below the median on both scales were classified as "Undifferentiated" (Table 1). In addition, t-tests were calculated to assess if each group was significantly different.

TABLE 1
CLASSIFYING SCORES FOR THE BSRI CATEGORIES

		MASCULINITY SCORE	
		Below Median	Above Median
Femininity Score	Below Median	Undifferentiated	Masculine
	Above Median	Feminine	Androgynous

Each MOSE dimension was then compared across the four Bem categories, and overall MOSE III profiles for each Bem category were examined.

Reliability for the BSRI using Cronbach's alpha was reported by Bem (1981b) as .86 for the Masculinity scale, .82 for the Femininity scale, and .85 for the Androgyny scale. Bem also evaluated reliability on the scales for men and women separately. Alpha ranged from .75 to .90. Test-retest reliability (four week intervals) ranged from .89 to .93.

Validity research for the BSRI includes numerous studies, which have been discussed in the preceding Literature Review. These studies indicate differences in behaviors for the Masculine, Feminine, and Androgynous groups. Examination of level of self-esteem, independence (labeled masculine), nurturance (labeled, feminine), and degree of involvement in gender-inappropriate activities was the basis of these studies. The reader is referred to the Literature Review and the BSRI manual (1981b) for a complete discussion of validity of the BSRI.

Procedure

In order to compare gender and sex-role classifications across each of the five MOSE III dimensions, data for this study was collected in three ways. (1) Subjects rated MOSE III items using their own view of sexuality (Appendix C); (2) subjects completed a demographic sheet (Appendix D); (3) subjects completed the BSRI (Appendix E). Persons were asked to rate the items on the MOSE III (Appendix C) according to whether or not the adjectives were "Not descriptive" to Highly descriptive" in relation to their personal sexual experience. Subjects were instructed to fill out the form based on their actual sexual experiences, thoughts, fantasies, or reading about sexual experience. For completion of the BSRI, subjects rated adjectives labelled as "Personality characteristics" on a seven-point scale as to whether or not the adjectives were "never or almost never true" to "always or almost always true" in order to describe themselves.

Administration of the questionnaire occurred in large groups, completed anonymously to further enhance confidentiality, and thereby reduced ingratiation and impression management strategies of each individual. Time range for completion of all forms was approximately 20 to 35 minutes. Subjects were also instructed to ask for word definitions, should any items be unfamiliar to them. In those instances, a short, general definition was provided verbally for the subjects.

CHAPTER III RESULTS

The analysis of data in this study examined gender and sex-role differences on the Meaning of Sexual Experience (MOSE III) questionnaire. Subjects were classified according to the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) categories of Masculine (MASC), Feminine (Fem), Androgynous (Andro), and Undifferentiated (Ud). A multivariate factorial design compared (1) gender differences, (2) sex-role differences, and (3) the eight gender and BSRI category differences (male-Masc, male-Fem, male-Andro, etc.). For each of the five MOSE III Subscales of Affiliation (Aff), Inadequate/Undesirable (Inad), Achievement (Ach), Moral (Mor), and Erotic/Dominance (Ero).

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) procedure analyzed the data with the gender and sex-role categories serving as the independent variables and the MOSE III subscale scores providing the dependent measures. Each of the component univariate relationships was also evaluated in order to more closely describe the information contained within the instrument.

The means reported for each variable have been reported in the metric of the measurement device by dividing each subscale sum by the

number of items combined into that value. The value for each subscale mean will therefore fall within the response scale range of one (not descriptive) to seven (completely descriptive). This format allows for easier conceptualization of the resulting profiles for each group or individual.

The data analyses were based on self-reports from 269 subjects and were processed using the Statistical Analysis System's General Linear Models procedure.

Sex-Role Classifications

Norms for the current sample were calculated and compared with Bem's (1978, reported in Bem, 1981b) norming study for the Masc and Fem scales. Table 2 presents those results, including raw scale score means, medians, and standard deviations for the two scales. The same procedure was employed to compare sample norms, and those data are presented in Table 3 for the current study.

TABLE 2
NORMS FROM BEM'S (1981b) SCORING OF THE BSRI

	Sexes Combined	Females (340)	Males (496)
<u>Femininity</u>			
Mean	4.82	5.05	4.59
Median	4.90	5.10	4.60
Standard Deviation	.59	.53	.55
<u>Masculinity</u>			
Mean	4.95	4.79	5.12
Median	4.95	4.80	5.10
Standard Deviation	.68	.66	.65

Norms include raw score means, medians, and standard deviations for the Fem and Masc scales.

TABLE 3
NORMS FOR THIS SAMPLE

	Sexes Combined	Females(117)	Males(152)
<u>Femininity</u>			
Mean	4.98	5.32	4.72
Median	5.00	5.30	4.75
Standard Deviation	.60	.48	.55
<u>Masculinity</u>			
Mean	5.10	4.85	5.29
Median	5.15	4.87	5.35
Standard Deviation	.74	.69	.73

Results were comparable with Bem's data for all categories, and classifications of the subjects for sex-role orientation were based on data from the current sample. Table 4 presents the suggested median-split procedure for both Bem's sample and the subjects in the current study.

TABLE 4
BEM'S SUBJECTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING
TO THE MEDIAN SPLIT METHOD

		<u>MASCULINITY SCORE</u>	
		Below Median	Above Median
<u>Femininity</u> <u>Score</u>	Below Median	% UNDIFFERENTIATED	% MASCULINE
		Sexes Combined: 22.5	Sexes Combined: 27.0
	4.90	Females: 18.0	Females: 12.0
		Males: 27.0	Males: 42.0
	Above Median	% FEMININE	% ANDROGYNOUS
		Sexes Combined: 25.5	Sexes Combined: 25.0
		Females: 39.0	Females: 30.0
		Males: 12.0	Males: 20.0

SUBJECTS CLASSIFIED IN THIS STUDY ACCORDING
TO THE MEDIAN SPLIT METHOD

		<u>MASCULINITY SCORE</u>	
		Below Median	Above Median
<u>Femininity</u> <u>Score</u>	Below Median	% UNDIFFERENTIATED	% MASCULINE
		Sexes Combined: 25.3	Sexes Combined: 27.5
	5.00	Females: 14.5	Females: 11.1
		Males: 33.6	Males: 40.1
	Above Median	% FEMININE	% ANDROGYNOUS
		Sexes Combined: 26.4	Sexes Combined: 20.8
		Females: 53.0	Females: 21.4
		Males: 5.9	Males: 20.4

T-tests were then used to determine if the median split procedure did in fact distinguish between statistically different groups for the Masc and Fem scales. Comparisons of groups scoring above the median on with Masc scale with those scoring below indicated that the groups were significantly different from one another at the $p = .0001$ level (low Masc $\bar{x} = 4.57$; high Masc $\bar{x} = 5.71$). High and low scoring groups on the Fem scale were also significantly different at the $p = .0001$ level (low Fem $\bar{x} = 4.54$; high Fem $\bar{x} = 5.47$). The t-tests results therefore supported the median-split method as an effective method for categorizing this sample into different groups.

MANOVA Results

The results of the MANOVA for effects across all five MOSE III subscales indicate a significant gender relationship [$V = .06$; $F(5,250) = 3.03$, $p = .02$]. Figure 1 contains the male and female profiles which illustrate this level of analysis. Also found to be significant by the MANOVA was the sex-role classification variable ($V = .20$; $F(15,256) = 3.71$, $p = .001$). Figure 2 provides an illustration of the profiles for the four levels of this factor. The gender by sex-role interaction failed to reach significance [$V = .05$; $F(15,756) = 0.89$, $p = .5807$].

Gender differences. Univariate follow-up analyses of these results reveal main effects for gender on two factors; Inad [$F(1, 254) = 6.97$, $p = .0088$] and Mor [$F(1,254) = 6.29$, $p = .0128$]. In both cases male subjects' means were found to be reliably greater than the correspondent female mean. As can be seen in Table 5, no other subscale closely approached significance.

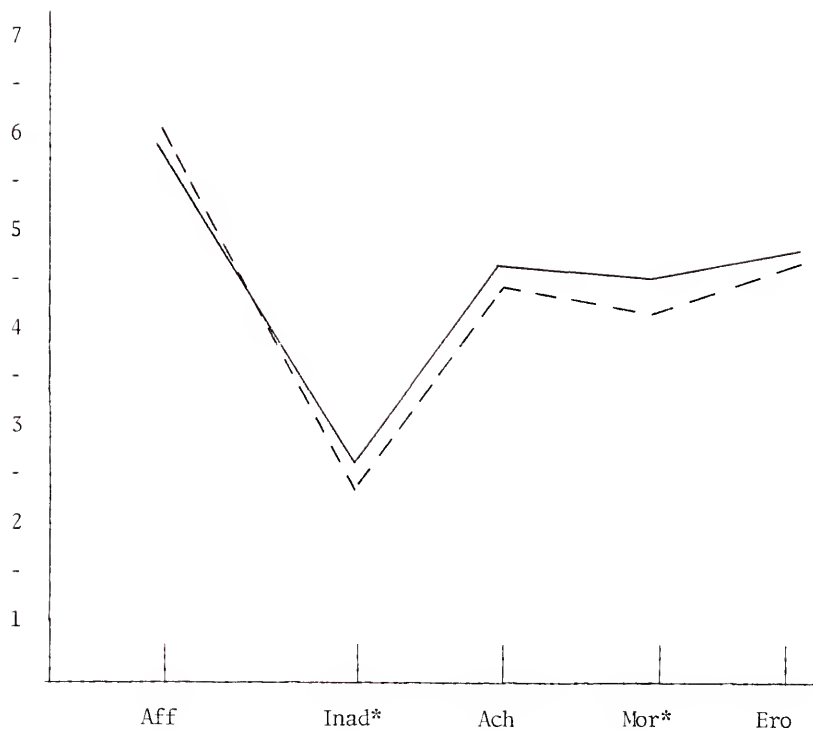


FIGURE 1
GENDER DIFFERENCES ON THE MOSE III

Males —————

Females - - - - -

* Significant differences

Note: N=153 males, 117 females

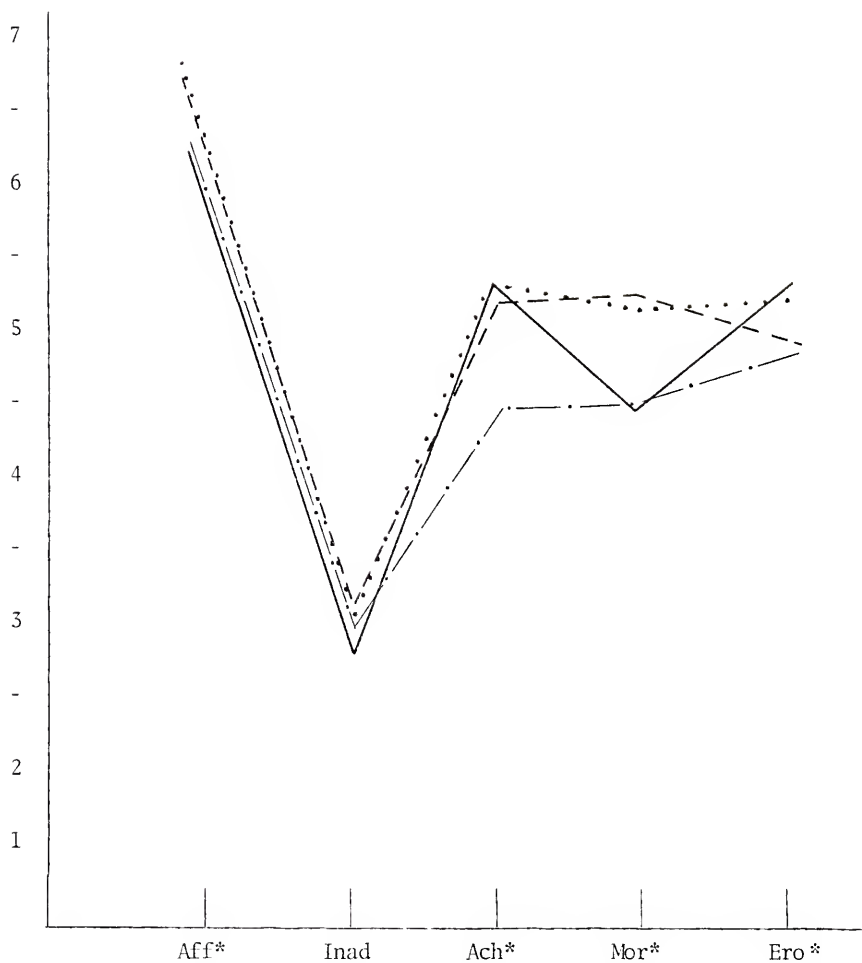


FIGURE 2
SEX-ROLE DIFFERENCES ON THE MOSE III

Masc —————

Females - - - - -

Andro

Ud —.—.—.—

*Significant differences

Note: N=74 Mases, 71 Fems, 66 Andros, 68 Uds

TABLE 5
MALE-FEMALE DIFFERENCES ON THE MOSE III

	Aff	Inad	Ach	Mor	Ero
Male \bar{x}	5.90	2.79	4.73	4.68	4.82
Female \bar{x}	6.09	2.35	4.49	4.25	4.75
Gender F/P	2.41	6.97	2.04	6.29	.21
	.122	.0088*	.1548	.0128*	.6438

*Significant differences

Note: N = 152 males, 117 females

Sex-role differences. The individual subscale analyses for the sex-role variable reached significance on four of the five dimensions of the MOSE III: Aff[F(3,254) = 7.02, $p < .0002$], Ach [F(3,254) = 5.62, $p < .0011$], Mor [F(3,254) = 6.26, $p < .004$], and Ero [F(3,254) = 4.38, $p < .0052$]. Only the Inad Scale failed to obtain a statistically reliable level [F(3,254) = .63, $p < .5987$]. These results were summarized in Table 6.

TABLE 6
SEX-ROLE DIFFERENCES ON THE MOSE III

	Aff	Inad	Ach	Mor	Ero
Masc \bar{x}	5.71	2.40	4.81	4.04	5.14
Fem \bar{x}	6.24	2.76	4.77	4.88	4.61
Andro \bar{x}	6.29	2.57	4.81	4.78	4.96
Ud \bar{x}	5.75	2.53	4.07	4.16	4.42
Sex-Role F/P	7.02	.63	5.62	6.36	4.38
	.0002*	.5987	.0011*	.0004*	.0052*

*Significant differences

Note: N = 74 Mases, 71 Fems, 56 Andros, 68 Uds

In order to more precisely understand the role of this variable, the complete set of pairwise comparisons was generated post hoc. The alpha levels of each comparison were adjusted with a Scheffe procedure in order to protect the experiment-wise alpha at the .05 level.

Results for the Aff factor indicate the Fem and Andro subjects were not significantly different from each other, but both groups scored significantly greater than both the Masc and Ud subjects. The Ach factor indicates that Masc, Fem, and Andro subjects did not differ, but that those groups scored significantly greater than the Ud group. Fem and Andro subjects scored greater than the Masc and Ud groups on the Mor factor, while the Ero factor shows higher self-ratings by the Masc and Andro groups over the Ud category (the Fem group was not significantly different from any group).

Gender and sex-role. Since the gender by sex-role interactions failed to reach significance, examination for specific effects on the five MOSE III factors is inappropriate. Those results are summarized in Table 7.

TABLE 7
GENDER-BSRI CATEGORY DIFFERENCES ON THE MOSE III

	Aff	Inad	Ach	Mor	Ero
Sex x Bem F/P	.47 .7106	.63 .5991	.93 .4296	.62 .6078	1.71 .1638
Male-Masc	5.55	2.45	4.73	4.23	5.11
Male-Fem	5.87	2.36	4.89	3.85	5.16
Male-Andro	6.17	2.97	4.88	5.31	4.41
Male-Ud	6.32	2.54	4.67	4.46	4.81
Female-Masc	6.29	2.88	5.09	4.96	5.29
Female-Fem	6.28	2.52	4.53	4.62	4.66
Female-Andro	5.60	2.84	4.23	4.23	4.48
Female-Ud	5.89	2.23	3.91	4.09	4.36

Note: No significant differences for the gender-BSRI categories.

N = 61 Male-Mascs, 9 Male-Fems, 31 Male-Andros,
51 Male-Uds, 13 Female-Mascs, 62 Female Fems,
25 Female-Andros, 17 Female-Uds.

CHAPTER IV DISCUSSION

As we have repeatedly maintained, sex is not the most important part of life. But it is a part and as good a representative as any other in the larger context of our lives. The hopes and fears and problems that affect us elsewhere usually show up in sex. (Zilbergeld, 1978, p. 384-385)

The literature which has examined sexuality often describes differences in behavior in order to explain underlying personal needs and meaning, yet this often leads to interpretation of meaning, based on the behavior itself. The apparent diversity of sexual behavior may in fact represent similar psychological purposes underneath the surface. For example, the bedhopper and the abstainer may engage in seemingly opposite activity for the same interpersonal needs. As stated by Gagnon and Simon (1973),

It [sex] is by its very nature a dependent variable. It is something that is more caused than causing and only through its ties with other human experiences is it given its meaning. (p. 43)

Previous hypotheses have been formulated based not only on overt behavior but on the different "physiological plumbing" of the sexes. Attempts to understand the meaning of sexuality have been reported and discussed in terms of male-female differences, in hopes of clarifying the diversity of behavior. Gagnon and Simon write:

Rarely do we turn from a consideration of the organs themselves to the sources of the meanings that are attached to them, the ways in which the physical activities of sex are learned, and the ways in which these activities are intergrated into larger social scripts and social arrangements where meaning and sexual behavior come together to create sexual conduct.
(p. 5)

In examining sexuality through sex-role perspectives, the goal was to examine the effects of social learning and transaction on a specific area of experience. Sexuality research provides us with an example of interpersonal style which can be applicable to other areas of behavior and personality. The following sections review and further examine the results of this study. The results are examined for their generalizability and applied implications. In addition, limitations and suggestions for future research investigations are included.

While gender differences are often examined in research, the use of sex-role clarifies the actual social and psychological stance individuals take in reference to their gender. The classifications are based on characteristics that are perceived as exclusively typical of a particular gender for that culture. The BSRI distinguishes four categories in relation to sex-role. The Masculine (Masc) group endorses traits and characteristics consistent with traditional male behavior, while the Feminine (Fem) group endorses descriptors identified with traditional females. The Androgynous (Andro) group members describe themselves with traits which include descriptors of both masculine and feminine behavior, and do not base their self-references exclusively on traditional sex-role models. The Undifferentiated (Ud) group members evaluated the self without reference to sex-role, rating low on overall masculine and feminine characteristics. This group uses other (often idiosyncratic) criteria for social interactions.

Current sample norms were compared to Bem's (1981b) report of results in categorizing subjects, indicating similar classification outcomes on both studies. Subjects from the current sample reflected characteristics which were consistent with Bem's findings and were therefore classified according to the median split method as recommended by Strahan (1975) and Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975). In the current sample, Masc subjects comprised 27.5% of the total; Fems, 26.4%; Andros, 20.8%; and Uds 25.3%. This can be compared to Bem's results of 27%, 25.5%, 25%, and 22.5% respectively. The largest difference between the two studies is that more subjects (5%) were categorized as Andro in Bem's research.

In reviewing the MOSE III results, it may be helpful for the reader to refer to the list of adjectives (Appendix A) which make-up each of the dimensions, in order to better comprehend the overall typologies. In brief, the Affiliation (Aff) dimension includes adjectives related to emotionally positive, intimacy oriented sexual experiences. The Inadequate/Undesirable (Inad) category indicated negative aspects of sexuality, including emotionally distant terms, rather than intimacy. The Achievement (Ach) factors represents descriptors relating to competence, competition, and creative elements. The Moral (Mor) subscale reflects terms involving religious or ethical considerations. The Erotic/Dominance (Ero) items describe the emotional intensity of sexual experiences. These five factors can be evaluated separately or together in terms of an overall personality profile of an individual or specified group.

Limitations of the study must be considered when discussing these results. The MOSE III may be viewed as a sampling of interpersonal needs, but may not be a complete evaluation of possible needs expressed in sexuality. Future research may aid in further elucidation of these needs. Additionally, both the MOSE III and the BSRI are representative of the current cultural definitions of sexuality and sex-role, respectively. They are therefore subject to changing culture and values, and ultimately, to obsolescence. Sample limitations must also be mentioned. This sample represents a predominantly white, heterosexual, college aged population of middle class socioeconomic background and value system. Gender and sex-role results may differ with respect to age, degree of sexual experience, and varying socioeconomic levels, so that results of this study may not be generalized to differing populations. For example, young college students may tend to view sex-roles in a more delineated, categorized fashion than individuals with life experience more broad and varied in scope. Therefore, the results may reflect more discrete differences in the college group than for an older population. Future research may clarify the effects of these variables in explaining the meaning of sexual experience.

The Meaning of Sexual Experience

Overall gender differences appeared to vary in comparison to Bernstein's (1982) original results, yet analysis according to sex-role clarified some of these differences and provided a useable structure for evaluating MOSE III scores. The gender and sex-role interactions provided no additional information regarding sexuality scores.

Gender Differences

The null hypothesis for gender was not supported. Male-female differences occurred on two factors, Inad and Mor, with men rating themselves significantly greater than females. This would indicate men describe their sexual experience in more negative and greater morally oriented terms than women. It may be recalled however, that Bernstein found other differences using t-tests on his factor analysis (MANOVA differences were not significant). He found that women rated themselves higher on the Aff subscale while men rated themselves greater on the Ero subscale. A comparison of sample characteristics revealed that subjects on the two studies were strikingly similar. Both groups were selected from Introductory Psychology courses at the University of Florida. Mean age for Bernstein's sample was 18.98 years old, while the mean age for the current sample was 19.14. Racial proportions were also similar on the two studies, in that the previous study reported whites comprising 90.6% of the groups, with blacks, Hispanics and other minorities equalling 9.4%. In the current study, whites were represented in 89.59% of the sample, with the same minority groups comprising the remainder. A comparison of the MOSE III self-reports for males and females from these two studies supports the contention that examining sexual meanings by gender alone leads to inconsistent results and may be an imprecise method.

Sex-role Differences

Use of sex-role classifications have provided a more accurate reflection of differences, and clarifies some of the gender results. The null hypothesis for sex-role was not supported, and significant differences emerged on four of the sexuality dimensions (excluding Inad).

Masculine and feminine groups. Examination of Masc-Fem differences were reflected on the following subscales: Fems scored significantly greater than Mascs on the Aff and Mor factors. Bernstein originally hypothesized that females maintain more affiliation and morally oriented viewpoints than males. The sex-role results are consistent with that hypothesis if it is assumed that Bernstein attempted to tap Masc and Fem characteristics when he was examining gender.

Androgynous and Undifferentiated groups. Examination of the Andro and Ud subjects provided additional explanations of the inconsistent results when gender alone is considered. The Andro group showed varying degrees of similarity with both the Masc and Fem groups, depending on which factor was being examined. These results supported the premise that Andros exhibit both Masc and Fem characteristics (Bem, 1974), at least in regard to sexuality. Aside from the Inad dimension (no groups were different), Andros were similar to Fems on the Aff, Ach, and Mor subscales, while the Andros were similar to the Mascs on the Ach and Ero dimensions (please note that the Masc, Fem, and Andro groups were equal on the Ach factor).

The Ud group was always different from the Andro group (with the exception of the Inad subscale). This finding supports the recommendation by some authors that Andros and Uds should be considered as distinctly different groups in regard to sex-role (Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1975; Bem, 1977). The Ud group was consistently most different from the other BSRI categories on the MOSE III. That group was similar only to the Masc group, on two dimensions: Aff and Mor (excluding the Inad dimension).

Since the Andro and Ud groups comprise approximately 46% of the subjects in this sample, these groups may exert specific influences on the outcome of the findings when sexuality scores are examined for gender (sample results show that 27.5% of the subjects are Masc, while 26.4% are Fem). This supports the view that examination of MOSE III scores based on gender alone is too simplistic, in that sex-role orientation affects overall results in several particular ways, depending on which dimension(s) of sexuality are being investigated.

Gender-BSRI Interactions

Recent researchers have discussed male-female differences on the BSRI, even when examining specific sex-role categories (Pedhazur and Tetenbaum, 1979; Belcher, 1981). Recommendations have been made in regard to examining gender in conjunction with each BSRI category, and yet this research does not support these conclusions. The null hypothesis was confirmed for the gender and BSRI groups on the MOSE III. The study provides no evidence that underlying constructs are different for men and women within each sex-role category; however, these considerations may be important in other areas of research. The lack of significant differences provides further evidence that sex-role is the more meaningful method for examining differences in regard to the meaning of sexuality.

General Considerations for Interpretation of the Results

It has been shown that sex-role differences provide meaningful structure for interpretation of the MOSE III data. Gender differences are influenced by the alignment of sex-role groups on particular subscales, which may cause variance of results when gender alone is examined.

Further comment should also be made in the interpretation of the data results on the Inadequate/Undesirable subscale. Gender results occurred for that subscale, but no sex-role differences emerged on the MANOVA. Several explanations are possible, in that

- a) gender is a better predictor of negative self-evaluation for meaning than sex-role;
- b) the Inad dimension of the MOSE III represents a qualitatively different aspect of sexuality in comparison to the other MOSE III dimensions;
- c) the gender-BSRI interactions, while not significant, influence the scores in a cumulative way so as to contribute to significant differences when the MOSE III is examined according to gender;
- d) while gender differences were significant, sex-role classifications are still better predictors, in that gender differences show a statistical but not meaningful difference. In actuality, sex-role results show that all categories are equal in their self-ratings, and this reflects an accurate evaluation of the data.

Further interpretation of the findings on the Inad subscale clouds rather than clarifies this issue. Since Bernstein's study did not find gender differences on the Inad factor, there is no consistency of findings between the two studies. Therefore, the gender differences explanation (a) can not be concluded at this time. In terms of the

second explanation (b), Bernstein reported that the Inad subscale was conceptually cohesive and met statistical criteria for his factor analysis. Males and females were not significantly different in endorsement of those items. Further analysis of the qualitative differences of this factor may still be necessary, however. The third explanation (c) hypothesizes that sex-role orientation may at times combine with gender effects to produce differences on the Inad factor, but MANOVA results from this study indicate interactions are not significant. Therefore, conclusions can be tentative at best for adoption of this explanation.

One previous study may in part support each of the first three explanations. Kelly, Caudill, Hathorn, and O'Brien (1977) examined gender, sex-role, and interaction effects for socially negative self descriptors. Fem-females were least likely to endorse negative masculine self descriptors (the other Female BSRI categories were not significantly different from any other group), while Masc and Ud males endorsed both Masc and Fem descriptors. This caused a polarization in overall gender results (findings for sex-discrepant sex-role categories, that is Fem-males and Masc-females, were not reported). If in fact similar dynamics occurred in the current study on the Inad subscale, they may support the gender differences explanation (a). In terms of the second explanation (b), the results may indicate that the Inad factor represents predominantly male descriptors and is therefore qualitatively different from the other factors. The third explanation (c) indicates that gender-BSRI effects (from the Fem-females) resulted in the lowered female mean, which may also be plausible at this time.

The previous research does not completely clarify specific differences according to the above explanations for the current results. The lack of significant differences for sex-role does not negate the fourth explanation (d) as a viable explanation of the findings, that is, that a lack of differences in results reflect an accurate interpretation of the data. Further evaluation of the Inad dimension in future research may help to clarify the intervening effects on this subscale.

Beyond Sex-Roles

Since the BSRI categories were superior to the other methods of evaluating sexual experience, a re-evaluation of sex-role theory and research may be important in conceptualizing these results. Bem (1981b) explains that sex-role research is subject to the effects of differing cultural values over time. For example, a societal value growing in acceptance currently is that males can be emotion-oriented and still be considered "manly." Since sex-role stereotypes and definitions may become obsolete, perhaps an overall evaluation of individual characteristics may be more important ways of examining interpersonal views.

Each sex-role category describes a (potential) set of generalized traits. The traditional masculine type represents traits of independence, self-sufficiency, instrumentality, and rationality, while the feminine type represents nurturance, interpersonal sensitivity, and emotional orientation. The androgynous personality exhibits both masculine and feminine characteristics, and has been popularized in recent years as an answer to the problems of traditional masculine-feminine polarization, but as Zilbergeld (1978) states

The extreme form of the current fad of androgyny, which demands...both 'masculine' and 'feminine' qualities, is no more liberating than the system against which it is a reaction...the range of behavior is broadened, but the coercion remains the same. (p. 383)

Examination of traits such as interpersonal sensitivity, instrumentality, etc., may in fact provide more clear descriptions of actual behaviors than by sex-role classification.

Discovery of traits which seem to promote satisfying functioning (whether in sexuality, work, religion, education, etc.) may best help us to understand one another. Can the individual be both dominant at times and passive at other times? Can the person be technique oriented and nurturing? Does the sexual relationship allow for changing roles and meaning in different situations? Is there room in the relationship for feedback and change?

It may be profitable to examine the above traits and behaviors in regard to sexual meaning. Evaluation of these issues may be examined through research with diverse populations (i.e., sex offenders, rape victims, married vs single people and other groups). Further evaluation of the MOSE III may be facilitated by discovery of additional meanings of sexuality and add to the development of the instrument, since meaning dimensions can be an important way of understanding human experience.

Practical Implications

Evaluation of sex-roles is important in that it provides insight as to how an individual may view aspects of life as a subjective experience. The meaning of sexual experience is one of those aspects.

Examination of sexuality provides a framework for understanding the diversity of behaviors and attitudes which express the needs of individuals. These meanings may be of special assistance in the counseling area to understand sexual difficulties, and may be used in couples psychotherapy. In individual therapy, a MOSE III "profile" may assist both the therapist and client to better understand underlying motivations and meanings of particular behaviors or dysfunctions. With continued use of this instrument, perhaps personality profile patterns can be both explanatory and predictive of behaviors and attitudes. The MOSE III may provide information adjunctive to traditional clinical interviews, case histories, and other assessment instruments such as sexual and marital satisfaction inventories. Personal issues which might not be readily apparent may be revealed and noted for further therapeutic exploration. For example, hostility, guilt, competitive, or power oriented profiles may be developed from subscale configurations. In couples counseling, the MOSE III dimensions provide a straightforward method for understanding each partner's view in nonjudgemental, often nonsexual contexts. Sharing of these views between spouses may enhance insight and communication within the couple.

This study and those reported herein may be instructive in terms of socialization of individuals in our culture. Hopefully, this research is indicative of changing social and sexual roles in our society. This study and the research of Bem indicate that most men are not categorized as stereotypically masculine, and many women are not

generally categorized as stereotypically feminine. Education of those findings may ease fears and anxiety for people who don't "fit the mold" of their gender. Indeed, stereotypes of expected behavior and underlying interpersonal meanings may be the exception rather than the rule in comparison to actual behavior. This research encourages the acceptance of more flexible and less stereotypical expectations for social roles, behaviors, and attitudes, which are evidenced in the meanings of sexuality for men and women.

Finally, it is hoped that this research can in some way address the present socio-political and interpersonal issues in regard to the sexes in our society. Zilbergeld (1978) states that

For all the differences between men and women, and despite the angry charges and countercharges of the last few years, it has become increasingly clear that it is difficult to be either a man or a woman and that both share many of the same dilemmas and aspirations. (p. 384)

The outer expressions of our purposes and goals are often interpreted from the perspective of our "physiological plumbing"--that is, the differences based on gender. Yet sex-role, regardless of actual gender, appears to be an influential variable. Within each orientation, men and women may be pretty much the same.

APPENDIX A
ADJECTIVES MEETING FACTOR LOADING CRITERIA
(54 Adjectives)

<u>Affiliation</u>	<u>Inadequate/ Undesirable</u>	<u>Achievement</u>	<u>Moral</u>	<u>Erotic Dominance</u>
caring	distant	daring	proper	hot
warm	resentful	imaginative	moral	forceful
kind	evasive	inventive	pure	titillating
loving	futile	victorious	dignified	erotic
sincere	flat	mighty	clean	aggressive
gentle	inhibited	determined	correct	demanding
fond	awkward	outgoing	righteous	ecstatic
affectionate	timid	winning	honorable	
intimate	frigid	assertive	virtuous	
trusting	inadequate	successful		
mature	remote	capable		
	disagreeable			
	infantile			
	distrustful			
	inept			
	undesirable			

APPENDIX B

THE MEANING OF SEXUAL EXPERIENCE QUESTIONNAIRE - II

Part I. Please answer the following questions.

1. AGE _____

2. ETHNIC GROUP (check one): WHITE _____ BLACK _____
SPANISH _____ OTHER (specify) _____

3. SEX: MALE _____ FEMALE _____

Part II. On the following pages you will find a list of 84 adjectives.

We would like you to use these adjectives to describe the personal meaning that sexual experience has for you. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how descriptive these adjectives are of the unique meaning of your sexual experiences. Please respond according to the enduring and consistent meanings that you ascribe to sexual experience rather than your immediate feelings about sexual experience. The meaning you ascribe to sexual experience may be derived from the range of your actual sexual experiences or from your thoughts, fantasies, or readings about sexual experiences. Read these adjectives quickly and PLEASE DO NOT LEAVE ANY ADJECTIVE UNMARKED.

Coding: 1 NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER 5 OFTEN
2 USUALLY NOT 6 USUALLY
3 SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY 7 ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS
4 OCCASIONALLY

Adjective list:

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|
| 1. hot | 26. awkward |
| 2. contented | 27. unkind |
| 3. mighty | 28. uninhibited |
| 4. ambitious | 29. attached |
| 5. appropriate | 30. forceful |
| 6. inhibited | 31. victorious |
| 7. aloof | 32. virtuous |
| 8. inadequate | 33. cool |
| 9. affectionate | 34. yielding |
| 10. lush | 35. futile |
| 11. fond | 36. ugly |
| 12. aggressive | 37. titillating |
| 13. industrious | 38. sincere |
| 14. honorable | 39. accomplishing |
| 15. controlled | 40. clean |
| 16. distant | 41. fussy |
| 17. imperfect | 42. muted |
| 18. excitable | 43. obliging |
| 19. rapturous | 44. inept |
| 20. unselfish | 45. erotic |
| 21. dominant | 46. sociable |
| 22. masterful | 47. capable |
| 23.. moral | 48. dignified |
| 24. frigid | 49. infantile |
| 25. distrustful | 50. flat |

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| 51. passive | 68. mischievous |
| 52. devilish | 69. amorous |
| 53. ecstatic | 70. masculine |
| 54. strong | 71. triumphant |
| 55. persevering | 72. pure |
| 56. correct | 73. hurried |
| 57. robust | 74. evasive |
| 58. wary | 75. timid |
| 59. feminine | 76. offensive |
| 60. naughty | 77. outgoing |
| 61. zany | 78. potent |
| 62. demanding | 79. winning |
| 63. successful | 80. righteous |
| 64. proper | 81. reserved |
| 65. complex | 82. egotistical |
| 66. remote | 83. submissive |
| 67. dependent | 84. unscrupulous |

APPENDIX C
THE INTERPERSONAL MEANING OF
SEXUAL EXPERIENCE ADJECTIVE SCALE-III

Directions: Sexual experiences have various meanings for different people. The unique meanings that sexual experience has for you may be the result of your actual experiences with kissing, petting, intercourse, etc., or they may be the result of your thoughts, fantasies, or readings about sexual experience.

On the following pages you will find a list of 70 adjectives. Indicate, by circling a number from 1 to 7, how descriptive each of the adjectives is of your personal meaning of sexual experience.

Circle "1" to indicate that the adjective is NOT DESCRIPTIVE.

Circle "7" to indicate that the adjective is HIGHLY DESCRIPTIVE.

Use the numbers "2", "3", "4", "5", or "6" if the adjective is between being NOT DESCRIPTIVE AND BEING HIGHLY DESCRIPTIVE.

PLEASE DO NOT LEAVE ANY ADJECTIVE UNMARKED.

* * * * *

		NOT DESCRIPTIVE					HIGHLY DESCRIPTIVE	
1.	inept	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	honorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	masterful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	titillating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	demanding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	muted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	submissive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	unselfish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	dignified	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	remote	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	erotic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	frigid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	victorious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	futile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	proper	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	hot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	forceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	righteous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	offensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	dominant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	moral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	clean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	infantile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	timid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		NOT DESCRIPTIVE					HIGHLY DESCRIPTIVE	
26.	affectionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	uninhibited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	distrustful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	flat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	potent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	ecstatic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	winning	1	2	3	4	5	6	
35.	distant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	virtuous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	inhibited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	awkward	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	pure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	outgoing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	inadequate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	correct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	mighty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	evasive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	amorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	successful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	fond	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	caring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

NOT
DESCRIPTIVEHIGHLY
DESCRIPTIVE

52.	discrete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	disagreeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	intimate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56.	mature	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57.	daring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58.	loving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59.	imaginative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60.	kind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61.	undesirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62.	sensual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63.	sacred	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64.	tactful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65.	resentful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66.	inventive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67.	trusting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68.	determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69.	serious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70.	warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D
THE INTERPERSONAL MEANING OF SEXUAL EXPERIENCE
INFORMATION SHEET

Directions: Please answer each of the following questions as accurately as you can.

1. AGE _____
2. ETHNIC GROUP: WHITE _____ BLACK _____ SPANISH _____
Other (please specify) _____
3. SEX: MALE _____ FEMALE _____
4. Are you currently in an ongoing intimate relationship? Yes ___ No ___
If you answered "Yes," how long have you been involved in this relationship? _____
If you answered "No," have you ever had such a relationship?
Yes _____ No _____ If so, how long did it last? _____
5. With how many different people have you had sexual intercourse?
0 ___; 1 ___; 2 ___; 3 ___; 4 ___; 5 or more _____
6. Which is your preference for sexual partners:
Same sex as yourself _____
Opposite sex _____
7. Are your parents currently married and living together? Yes ___ No ___
8. Please give the ages of your sisters and brothers, if any:
Sisters: _____
Brothers: _____

APPENDIX E
SELF-PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

On the following page you will be given 60 personality characteristics. We would like you to use these characteristics to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristics unmarked.

Example: sly

Write a 1 if it is NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE that you are sly.

Write a 2 if it is USUALLY NOT TRUE that you are sly.

Write a 3 if it is SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE that you are sly.

Write a 4 if it is OCCASIONALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Write a 5 if it is OFTEN TRUE that you are sly.

Write a 6 if it is USUALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Write a 7 if it is ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE that you are sly.

A.	Sly	4
----	-----	---

Any questions?

Begin with item #1.

NEVER OR
ALMOST NEVER
TRUE

USUALLY
NOT TRUE

SOMETIMES BUT
INFREQUENTLY
TRUE

OCCASIONALLY
TRUE

OFTEN
TRUE

USUALLY
TRUE

ALMOST OR
ALMOST AL-
WAYS TRUE

1. 2. 3. 4. 5. . . . 6. . . . 7.

1. Self-reliant		21. Reliable		40. Masculine	
2. Yielding		22. Analytical		41. Warm	
3. Helpful		23. Sympathetic		42. Solemn	
4. Defends own beliefs		24. Jealous		43. Willing to take a stand	
5. Cheerful		25. Has leadership abilities		44. Tender	
6. Moody		26. Sensitive to the needs of others		45. Friendly	
7. Independent		27. Truthful		46. Aggressive	
8. Shy		28. Willing to take risks		47. Gullible	
9. Conscientious		29. Understanding		48. Inefficient	
10. Athletic		30. Secretive		49. Acts as a leader	
11. Affectionate		31. Makes decisions easily		50. Childlike	
12. Theatrical		32. Compassionate		51. Adaptable	
13. Assertive		33. Sincere		52. Individualistic	
14. Flatterable		34. Self-sufficient		53. Does not use harsh language	
15. Happy		35. Eager to soothe hurt feelings		54. Unsystematic	
16. Strong personality		36. Conceited		55. Competitive	
17. Loyal		37. Dominant		56. Loves children	
18. Unpredictable		38. Soft-spoken		57. Tactful	
19. Forceful		39. Likable		58. Ambitious	
20. Feminine				59. Gentle	
				60. Conventional	

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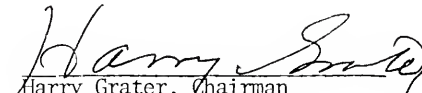
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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

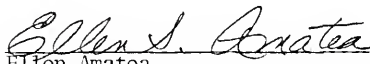
David A. Garrison was born June 28, 1951 in Phoenix, Arizona. Educated in the local public school system, he graduated from high school in 1969. An early interest in journalism resulted in David's work as editor of his college newspaper. It was during this time that he met Gail Page, to whom he was married on April 22, 1972.

During the early 1970s, David worked for several years for human services agencies in Phoenix. After receiving a variety of counseling training, he graduated from Arizona State University with a major in psychology in 1975. Following completion of a master's degree in Counseling from the University of Arizona in Tucson, David and Gail moved to Chicago where David worked as a group counselor for a social service agency. It was during this time that he decided to return to school to study counseling psychology at the University of Florida, and the Doctor of Philosophy degree is expected to be conferred in August, 1983.

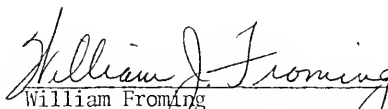
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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Psychology in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and to Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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